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LEND A HAND.

A RECORD OF PROGRESS.

Vol. XI. NOVEMBER, 1893. No. 5.

The eleventh Indian Conference was held at Lake Mohonk on the 11th, 12th, and 13th of October. It assembled nearly two hundred persons interested in Indian questions. In this number were many people "from the field," as the Conference puts it, whose suggestions were of the first interest and value. The hospitality of the Messrs. Smiley and the ladies of their families was never more charming, the weather was almost perfect through the days of the sessions of the Conference, and the attractions of Lake Mohonk appeared, therefore, at their very best. What may be called a preliminary meeting was held on Tuesday evening. On Wednesday morning, after a devotional service, President Gates took the chair, and made an address of welcome. President Gates was fresh from Williams College, which had given him on its centennial the well deserved degree of Doctor of Laws. Through the whole exercise of the Conference he led the proceedings with an admirable spirit and temper, and among the thousand favoring influences which go to the life of this remarkable assembly, none is to be noted as more fortunate than his intelligent presence as its leader. Messrs. Ward and Abbot, Mrs. Quinton and Miss Dawes, were appointed with him to serve as executive committee. They kept the

business close up, and there was neither jar nor flag in the whole of it.

On the first morning Captain Wotherspoon, from the Mount Vernon Barracks, spoke. He was welcomed as Captain for the first time, having recently received his well-earned promotion. He spoke of the effect of sanitary measures on the mortality of that unfortunate handful of Apaches, whose misfortune was their loyalty to our government at a time when most of their tribe failed us. For this loyalty we have removed them from their own country, and established them in a distant home. The death rate among these poor people three and a half years ago, caused mostly by consumption, was 176 out of a thousand. This rate has now been reduced seventy-five per cent., and although it is bad enough now,—for in the last year eighteen died from a population of about four hundred, it is steadily declining. This is owing to cleanliness and the separation of consumptive patients from each other. Captain Wotherspoon gave a very interesting account of the tribe, and the advances which they are making. They show particular skill as truck gardeners, and many of them are employed in that neighborhood. Some curious statistics, which we will not undertake to give in detail, were given at this meeting, which showed quite definitely that some of the tribes of Indians have a better power of resisting phthisis, the great foe of their race, than others. It is to be hoped that some of the medical officers will combine these statistics, and that something of some scientific value may be gained from them.

Mr. Coppuck of Chilocco, who has been spending a part of the summer as the superintendent of the school maintained at Chicago in the Exposition, gave a very interesting account of the condition of his school and people. General Morgan and Mrs. Quinton made short addresses. Mr. Meserve gave an account of the government school at Lawrence, and spoke in a very encouraging way as to its future. The average attendance is five hundred and thirty-five, and his pupils for the next year have been largely enlisted from Kan-

sas, Oklahoma, and the Indian Territory; in former years they have come from a much wider range. The mortality in this school is very small. On a roll of six hundred sixty-two, there were but five deaths in 1891; in 1892, in a roll of six hundred thirty-seven, but four. The Sioux have perhaps the lowest death-rate, the Pawnees and Modocs perhaps the highest.

Miss Worden of the Santee Mission School won the attention of the whole assembly by her statement of its successes and its needs. Like all the missions of the American Missionary Society, they are suffering for the moment by the refusal of that society to accept anything from the national treasury. Our central office will send out at once a circular to the persons interested, to ask them to maintain a school for nurses and a modest hospital in the Santee Mission. It is clear enough that these are needed, and it is a pity to wait in so necessary a matter for those slow arrangements which are to harmonize church and state forever. The company was greatly interested when Miss Worden told of the enthusiasm with which the young men in the theological school offered themselves as pupils in the school for cooking; their pressure was so strong that it became necessary to receive them. Miss Worden is no enthusiastic believer in the breaking up of the tribes and sending the children to distant schools. "We teach the Ten Commandments, and we do not see how they are to honor their fathers and mothers if they are not to know who their fathers and mothers are." It was stated in this connection that every mission school under the charge of the American Missionary Association has been put down for the present; at Santee two shops and one cottage have been closed.

Captain Pratt spoke briefly, before the adjournment on the first day. He gave an interesting account of the visit which his boys and girls had recently made to the World's Fair. When they went away from the school to their summer places of work, he told them that on their return those of them who had earned money enough might go to the Fair. The conse-

quence was that a party of more than five hundred, of whom four hundred and fifty-seven were Indians from the school, to the Fair in September. These pupils had all of them went earned the money to go and to come back, and they had several thousand dollars besides for spending-money while they were there. He was satisfied that, as a part of their education, the visit had been of great importance. And he said he would hazard the statement that if Mr. Cody ("Buffalo Bill"), were imprudent enough to let his braves leave his exhibition for a fortnight, and go through the Fair grounds with the facilities which were offered to the Carlisle pupils, not one of them would ever return for the purposes of the showman.

The evening was given to an address by Bishop Whipple, after which the company adjourned to the large dining-room, where Dr. Jackson had made arrangements for a series of stereopticon views, illustrating his life and work in northern Alaska and Siberia. The success of Dr. Jackson in introducing reindeer from Siberia into Alaska is very remarkable. Of this we published some account in March last, and shall hope to give further accounts. The photographs brought us very close to the faithful and diligent work-people in Alaska, and when the next day the news of the murder of Mr. Thornton was received, the whole company felt as if they personally understood the difficulties of the circumstances in which he was placed. A very earnest appeal was made in behalf of a crowded school for which neither the government nor any missionary society had been able to provide, and the next day and in the following day quite a large contribution was made, to relieve Dr. Jackson from the responsibility which he had felt for the future maintenance of this school.

Friday morning was given mostly to a discussion of the danger of the recent statute with regard to the trust funds of the Indians. In this matter we shall publish Gen. Colby's and Mr. Garrett's reports, and shall probably have occasion to speak in much detail. So far as the addresses and the conversation which followed on the second and third days may

be said to have taken the form of a discussion, the subject which seemed most to interest the speakers was the question which Captain Pratt raises with so much determination, whether our whole policy should not be governed by the hope of breaking up the tribal system entirely, and absorbing the Indians into the general population of the country. As to the method of doing this first, and as to its desirability in certain sections, there is more or less difference of opinion among the persons most interested in the Indian race. A great deal of suggestion was made which would be valuable in the solution of this question.

The Conference closed on Friday evening in a symposium, as it may be called, in which a number of spirited speeches were made, of which none interested the assembly more than that of Dr. Montezuma, the physician in charge of the great Carlisle school. Dr. Montezuma was an Apache boy, who was bought by a photographer in Chicago, who rescued him by the purchase from the lowest slavery, and carried him to the city of Chicago for his education. He has availed himself with distinguished success of the opportunity thus offered to him, has passed through his medical education and his early practice with honor, and is an admirable object-lesson of what happens to an Indian of one of the stronger races when he receives the benefit of the higher education. Everything is possible to the race if it can show that Dr. Montezuma is not one of the fortunate exceptions.

It is very interesting to see how year by year, the demands, if one may call them so, which the Conference makes upon the administration and upon Congress become more modest, simply because the nation, with every year, is better doing its duty towards these people whom it calls its wards. To be able to show that, while there are twenty-four thousand Indian boys and girls who should be educated, twenty thousand of them are already in schools, is certainly a great advance on anything we could show twenty years ago. When one understands that the remaining three thousand are mostly Navajos,—that is, members of a tribe of whose sch

XUM

education one would no more have spoken twenty years ago than he would have spoken of the school education of butterflies,—the contrast is even more striking. The appeal this year to the government implies that it is necessary that these children shall be taken in hand as well as the more favored races.

The address made by Mr. Ross from the Choctaw Reservation, showed clearly enough that difficulties of statesmanship are in store, before the affairs of what are called the "five civilized tribes" can be regulated on a basis which most people would call a basis of civilization. There was perhaps a general feeling that this was in the future, and the Conference was not very sorry that the details of it were to be arranged perhaps by the sons and daughters of those who were in attendance.

Every effort was made to speak civilly and cordially of the present Indian administration, but everybody felt that it was on trial, and that it was a great pity that so favorable and intelligent an Indian administration as that of the last four years should have been obliged to give way under the impulse of partisan necessities. The Conference expressed itself in the strongest way as to the importance of putting the whole Indian service under strict civil service direction.

CHANGE OF ADMINISTRATION IN THE INDIAN SERVICE.

BY HON. PHILIP C. GARRETT.

In presenting the remarks contained in this brief paper, on the importance of modifying the present custom of removals in the Indian service, it is the writer's desire to be distinctly understood as passing no criticism on the heads of govern-

A paper read at the eleventh annual Conference of Friends of the Indian, at Lake Mohonk, Oct. 13, 1893.)

ment, except for persisting in what he regards as the highly injurious custom referred to.

Those officials have been of so high a character, and have done so much, of late years, to improve the condition of the Indians, that he has no desire to cast any reflections on them. Any severity of terms, therefore, used in deprecating the long-established method of procedure in this respect must not be applied to the very admirable officials using those methods, but only to the methods themselves.

The past three administrations have so clearly demonstrated the improbability of securing permanency of tenure for those officials in the Indian Service, who have proven themselves valuable, that it is high time the American people spoke in clarion notes their disapprobation of the existing system. Those administrations represent both political parties. They represent, in each case, that wing of the party most favorable to civil-service reform, not the Tammany Democracy, nor the Quay Republicans. The sharp contrasts in the nominating conventions clearly revealed both Mr. Cleveland and Mr. Harrison as the choice respectively of the moderate and least partisan sections of the two parties. And yet, in spite of this fact, yes, and of the sincere desire we have no right to doubt, of both of these Presidents, to administer the Indian Office in the interest of the nation and not of the politicians, by reform methods, the administrations are no sooner begun, than professions and desires alike, go to the winds.

The politics of any man selected by either of the great parties as its candidate for the presidency, are not likely to be colorless. Seldom, indeed, are those individuals less partisan than the two distinguished men at the head of these three administrations. They were both advocates of the reform in the civil service. Both of them advocated a wider use of the rules providing examinations for merit, and advocated it practically, by actually extending the application of those rules to other branches of the service, under the powers conferred on them by the law. And they both showed, by an

occasional disregard for party lines, their independence of a servile partisanship. And yet what do we see? Even in these notably manly administrations, so irresistible is the political tornado that sweeps over the latitude of the Capitol about the 4th of March, that solemn resolves and promises are like feathers on the gale, and are whisked away and buried under the wreck of departed hopes. President Cleveland could hardly have been more explicit, or more apparently sincere than he was, in his purpose to appoint to the head of the Indian office some one of those suggested to him by men familiar with the progressing solution of the Indian problem, and who had been studying it for years. But their suggestions were all laid aside, no doubt under pressure irresistible, and a political appointment made, of a very able and excellent gentleman, it is true, but one who avowedly knew nothing especial about the Indians, and had not been especially interested in their civilization previously. If it must be a *novus homo*, and thus rewarded for political support of the new administration, perhaps there could not have been a better personal selection made. Grant this, but look at the loss the service suffers from the necessity he is under to study the whole subject *ab initio*. General Morgan for four years had administered the office with rare fidelity, ability, zeal and intelligence. He had acquired, in those four years, a thorough grasp of the situation. He was full of his subject; he had considered it for years previously. Thoroughly in harmony with the most progressive and most highly organized sentiment of Indian workers and philanthropists combined, he was trying to solve the vexed problem on the best lines. Concede that he made mistakes. Few men do not, who have the enthusiasm to accomplish great things. He had a policy; he knew the field thoroughly—he was eager to work out his policy to the end, and willing to make great personal sacrifices. But he was a partisan,—a campaign biographer and a strong supporter of the defeated candidate for the presidency, and his retention under the spoils system could not be thought of. That he was a partisan from conscience, and

conscientious to the back-bone, — for he had a back-bone — could not remove the disqualification. The reward of office must needs go to those who have contributed in some way to the election of the new man. It is not an over-honest system; it is not in the interest of the American people, whose interest a President is elected to serve. Oh! for a ruler not only of clear vision enough to see this, but of power to tear asunder the habit of regarding this high office as one to be paid for by scattering broadcast rewards. For see the result. Instead of four years training in a somewhat perfect knowledge of the Indian question, the new incumbent must set to work at the foundation, and acquire the necessary familiarity with this most complicated of government questions. Meanwhile he must depend upon such advice, prejudiced or not, as he can obtain. Perchance, a new line of policy will be adopted; the old fabric is to be destroyed, and a new one built up on its ruins. Worse than all, as all experience shows, and recent experience most of all, it is customary to replace the various agents, superintendents, inspectors, &c., who are supposed to be anti-administrationists, by new men, most of whom have everything to learn, and who are not to be appointed solely with reference to their fitness. It is not the dishonest, the incapable, the unsuccessful who are to be displaced, but good and bad alike, and excellent incumbents often in the midst of valuable schemes which they are developing for the good of their wards.

Very disastrous to successful administration, from any business point of view, is this most unbusiness-like and pernicious system. When is the day to come, when, with ears closed to interested parties and politicians, a President will be allowed by public opinion to observe and investigate deliberately on his own initiative the merits of all incumbents of offices in his gift, and retain or dismiss for merit or demerit only? Not till then will it be possible to administer the Indian Office so as with reasonable celerity and humanly, to solve the troublesome problem it presents.

XUM

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XUM

One can scarce avoid dealing in platitudes upon this subject of merit appointments, the evident need of a revolution of methods having been dinned into the public ear so continually for the last quarter of a century. Vainly do corrupt politicians, seconded by honest partisans, blind in their zeal for party success, seek to throw dust in the popular eye in this respect. They cannot pervert into honesty and purity, a system which, by appointing to office men who are unpatriotic, and often not overburdened with conscience, who, in addition know nothing of the work they are to do, and who, therefore, do everything wrong, may cost the country millions of dollars more, every year, than the same work would cost if performed by men of the greatest fitness, such as a merchant would select for his own business. An occasional exception, where an appointee turns out, as if by accident, to be well-fitted for his duties, does not much alter the evil of the system, which is detrimental and scandalous beyond the power of words to express.

It grows more and more evident, as the industries of this country develop a competition for the ablest workers, of how much greater value men are who are skilled and fitted for their specialty, than the ordinary workman, uninterested, slack, or of small capacity. At Homestead, during the late strike, it was brought out by the Congressional investigation, that as much as $3000 per annum wages, were paid by the Carnegie works to certain skilled mechanics, while untrained workmen could be had in abundance for $9 per week. Perhaps this proportion, of less than $500 to $3000, is a fair measure of the relative value to the United States Government of the average party worker, as compared with men well-drilled, and selected for their experience, and special success in the task assigned to them. Is it honorable for us to load the American taxpayers with all this incubus of waste and defective work, to satisfy the obligation of a party to those who put it in power, or of a holder of office to the individuals who helped to elevate him? I make no personal

reference, truly believing that the personal intentions of the recent occupants of the Presidential chair have been exceptionally correct. They yielded to the sophistry of the moment, and, being convinced that the principles represented by their respective parties were right, and that the party machine must be kept in good repair, they seem to me to have surrendered to the importunity of more politic men about them. They have presented a certain front of opposition, but have been compelled to bow to the storm, and thus unwittingly sacrificed absolutely honest government to the welfare of a party. Have they not thus subordinated the interests of the whole people to those of a portion with which they were concerned? The strength of precedent, dating back to the term of Andrew Jackson, has been too much for them, backed, as it is, by the veto power of the Senate. In the case of Indian agents, this veto power has, of late, been shamefully abused by attempts to foist political favorites, or those expected to favor corrupt schemes, on the President, by the specious cry of "Home Rule." There is no sense or applicability of the British phrase used in this connection, and the Home Rule people, *i. e.*, people from the section where the Agency is situated, are as a class, the worst from whom to choose agents.

For this, as for the other evils referred to, it is the system that is responsible, the system of party-rewards, a system rotten to the core, and incapable, impossible of the best results; and if the present administration can extract from it good results, it will be doing what Gen. S. C. Armstrong once told us we were made to do—impossiblities.

For all appointments in the Indian service, those of Indian agents included, the great advantage of merit examinations is, that they take the service out of the arena of politics, and make of it as near a perfect organization as is possible, for the attainment of its objects; nearer perfect than any Government department can be, which is composed of rewarded politicians.

It is the purpose of this paper, however, not to limit its

criticism to the necessity it recognizes of increased Civil Service examinations. We want to strike at the root of the corrupt tree. We need to bear in mind, continually, that *continuity* of tenure is essential to a good organization,—that change is, in itself, a disadvantage, and involves loss; and especially frequent changes, and sweeping changes, which wipe out at a swoop, half-perfected plans, well-conceived and developed in one brain, and now crushed in the egg.

Whatever method of appointment is adopted, therefore to *replace* removals, that system is vitally and fundamentally defective, which goes on the assumption that on a change of administration, the present incumbents are to be turned out. There ought to be no removals except for unfitness. In point of fact, it were better to keep many an inadequate man in, with the knowledge he has acquired of duties, and conditions, than encounter the probability of newly appointing the same per centage of inadequates, with the further disadvantage of ignorance and inexperience.

It is so easy for political opponents to conjure up charges against the best of men, especially if some one wants to line his own nest with plucked feathers. Without Andrew Jackson's aid, the tendency is strong enough to pick flaws in the conduct of the most meritorious, if they are regarded as belonging to an enemy's camp, and bearing the stigma of spies. But if ejection is the recognized and familiar sequence of a change of parties, and no proof of incompetency is required, —the case is still worse. Then the political besom sweeps all before it, and leaves the entire service without the benefit of experience.

And what a terrible task this vicious system imposes on the appointing power. With sympathy we all remember the significant withdrawal of the President to Buzzard's Bay, immediately after the assembling of Congress under the late call for a special session, and how he caused it to be given out through the press that he had not sufficiently recovered from the strain to which his health had been subjected during the months since his inauguration, to endure the fatigues

of a Congressional session. He had then been in office five months, and a great part of the time and attention of this potentate had been taken up with considering appeals for place. It is hardly too much to estimate that from one-sixth to one-fourth of a President's time is consumed,—wasted, worse than wasted, in this way. That important time, which the nation reasonably expects will be devoted to the greater interests of the common weal, is frittered away upon the claims of people who *want* office, themselves. Instead of that, the Executive ought to be left undisturbed by the seekers for office and free to elect what offices should be vacated, for the common good; and unfettered in the choice of the fittest men to fill them. Perhaps no waste of the people's money, not even the waste of corruption, equals that arising from this squandering of the President's time, and the inexperience and incompetency in the various branches of the public service, inseparable from political appointment.

No department of this service feels the disadvantage more keenly than the Indian bureau, and this from a number of causes. In the first place, every new man has an immense amount to learn, owing to the different point of view from which Indians regard things, the small amount of English spoken by them,—the great diversity of conditions of the tribes, the complexity and variety of the treaty stipulations, and the confusing theories of governmental relation, which have varied at different stages of our history,—all together making a study of the Indian question resemble a complex science. A presidential term is all too short for an agent or other government employee to familiarize himself with the work. And besides this, the remoteness of the Indians from the seat of government, and their scattered condition, offer unusual facilities for fraud and robbery by crafty rings. The Indian country is for the most part comparatively unsettled and uncivilized; it therefore contains a larger than the average percentage of adventurers and outlaws, and half-civilized white men, for many of whom both the United States Treasury and the defenceless red man appear fair game. In con-

sequence, the cunning and insidious devices of dishonest men to influence the appointing power, against incorruptible incumbents, and in favor of some confederate, lead to continual mistakes in appointments, almost unavoidably. The picture I have drawn is dark, but is it darker than the facts warrant, even today?

For all this, there are two remedies, perhaps as near perfect as the situation admits, and not more drastic than it will allow.

1. Do away entirely with the custom of changing the subordinate *personnel* with every change of administration. Let the tenure of their office be permanent during good behavior.

2. When changes must be made, prohibit political influence, under heavy penalties, and extend the merit system to every important position under government, except the heads of departments.

In spite of the opinion of many politicians, that the importance of the integrity of a political organization surmounts every other consideration; notwithstanding the argument, so often heard from politicians in office, that they can make better appointments than any civil service examination will secure, experience shows that the only real safety lies in this somewhat mechanical, but reliable recourse. The country cannot afford to degrade government bureaus to the ignominious position of hospitals for ward-workers. It may be possible to improve the merit system; but at its very worst, it is better than the process of "vindicating" defeated candidates, and rewarding local "heelers and rounders" by saddling them on the national Treasury, with little or no reference to their qualifications for the place to which they are appointed. The merit system would retain the men best-fitted for its duties.

Having used plain English, and unavoidably illustrated my meaning by particular references, I cannot conclude with-

out reiterating the high opinion already expressed of the last two Commissioners and the two Presidents whose administrations have furnished the most ready illustration of the spoils system. I know the extreme difficulty of escaping from its toils, after precedent so long established. I know, too, that President Harrison, and, inferentially President Cleveland, regarded it as a necessary evil. In this I beg to differ from them *in toto :* and the fact that the evil grows upon us, even under the best-intentioned Presidents, is the clearest possible proof that there is no remedy short of eradicating the idea of reward for party services, virtually paid by the nation, and therefore out of the pockets of all parties, entirely from the theory of our government.

INDIAN DEPREDATION CLAIMS.

BY GENERAL L. W. COLBY.

Mr. President, Ladies and Gentlemen :

The history of congressional legislation upon the subject of Indian depredations commences almost with the existence of the nation, and a brief consideration of the earlier laws is deemed valuable for a proper understanding of the present statute.

The first remedial act was passed by Congress May 19, 1796. The general object of this act, as indicated by its title, was to promote trade and commerce between the states and the different Indian tribes, and preserve peace upon the frontier. It provides, however, among other things, a remedy for depredations committed by Indians upon the whites, and by whites upon the Indians. The fourteenth section contains a provision in substance, that if any Indian or Indians, belonging to any tribe in amity with the United States should come across the boundary line in any state or territory

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and there steal or destroy property belonging to any citizen or inhabitant, or commit any murder, violence or outrage, that application should be made, under the direction of the President of the United States, to the nation or tribe of Indians for satisfaction, and that the amount necessary for such purpose should be deducted, upon due proof of the amount of damage, out of the annual stipend which the United States was bound to pay to the tribe to which the offenders belonged, the Government, in each instance, guaranteeing to the party injured an eventual indemnification, providing the injured party should not violate the requirements of such act by seeking private satisfaction or revenge.

General Colby in the same manner recapitulates successive statutes of 1799, 1802, 1834, 1859, 1870, 1872, 1885, 1886, and 1887, each extending the right of claimants to present and prosecute their claims. By all this legislation prior to March 3, 1891, it will be observed that the examination and investigation of such claims was confined to the Executive Departments of the Government. Provision was made for findings and allowances, investigations and the taking of proofs, but there was no real judicial determination of the matters to be considered, and no authority for the entry of judgments. The awards, or allowances by the Secretary of the Interior, or other officers, were not binding upon the claimants, the Indian tribes, or Congress.

The act of March 3, 1891, entitled "An act to provide for the adjudication and payment of claims arising from Indian depredations," makes a radical change in the laws upon the subject of Indian depredations, especially in regard to the remedies, and is a departure from all preceding congressional action. This act confers upon a branch of the Judiciary Department, the Court of Claims, jurisdiction and authority to inquire into, and finally adjudicate all claims for Indian depredations of the following classes, namely:

First. All claims for property of citizens of the United States taken or destroyed by Indians belonging to any band, tribe, or nation in amity with the United States, without just

cause or provocation on the part of the owner or agent in charge, and not returned or paid for.

Second. All cases for Indian depredations which have been examined and allowed by the Interior Department.

Third. All such cases for Indian depredations as were authorized to be examined under the act of March 3, 1885, or the subsequent acts.

Fourth. All just offsets and counterclaims to any claim of either of the preceding classes which may be before such Court for determination.

Section six provides that the amount of any judgment so rendered against any tribe of Indians shall be charged up against such tribe and be deducted and paid in the following manner:

First. From annuities due said tribe from the United States;

Second. If no annuities are due or payable, then from any other funds due said tribe from the United States, arising from the sale of their lands, or otherwise;

Third. If no such funds are due or available, then from any appropriation for the benefit of such tribe, other than appropriations for their current and necessary support, subsistence and education;

Fourth. If no such annuity, fund, or appropriation is due or available, then the amount of the judgment shall be paid from the Treasury of the United States.

The property, for the taking or destruction of which actions have been commenced, varies with the times and localities in which the depredations occurred, and these cases afford a very interesting field for research to attorneys engaged in the litigation. Suits have been brought for the loss of husbands, wives, slaves, steamboats, mills, gold coin, Bank of England notes, dwelling houses, fences, a head of hair, a sky blue horse, a mouse colored mule, stock of all kinds, machinery, household goods, in fact nearly everything produced by nature or art during the century of our nation's progress.

XUM

The actions brought under this law, both in numbers and amounts involved, compose the most important class of cases over which the Court of Claims has been given jurisdiction. Up to August 1st, 1893, there had been 9,706 suits commenced in the Court of Claims for damages arising from Indian depredations, and in these the aggregate amount claimed is $37,533,374.15. There have been judgments rendered in, and a final disposition had of 751 of such actions; in 453 of which, the judgments were in favor of the claimants, and in 298 of which, judgments were in favor of the Government and the Indians. The aggregate amount of the judgments in favor of claimants is $931,391.45: in these the amounts of the original claims aggregate $1,707,938.50. The original claims in the 298 actions in which judgments have been rendered in favor of the defendants, aggregate $1,385,247.90. It thus appears that the original claims for Indian depredations which have been adjudicated in the Court of Claims, under the act of March 3, 1891, aggregate $3,093,186.40, and that the difference between the amount of such claims so adjudicated and the amount of the judgments rendered in favor of claimants is $2,161,794.95.

The judgments rendered in favor of claimants in Indian depredation cases prior to July 1, 1892, aggregate $479,067.62. Of these judgments, the amount of $815 was chargeable against the Osage Indians and was paid directly from the funds of such tribe without special congressional action being had. Provision was made by Congress by an appropriation of $478,252.62 for the payment of the remainder of the judgments which had been rendered prior to July 1, 1892.

The judgments rendered in favor of claimants in Indian depredation cases since July 1, 1892, aggregate $452,323.83, and for the payment of these no appropriations have yet been made by Congress.

The judgments rendered in favor of claimants, with the exception of eight cases, are upon claims which have been examined, approved, and allowed by the Secretary of the

Interior under the act of March 3, 1885, or other Indian depredation acts. These were actions, with few exceptions, entitled to priority of consideration by the court under section 4 of the act of March 3, 1891, and the claimants were entitled to judgment for the amount therein found due, unless either the claimants or the United States elected to re-open the case.

The judgments in favor of the defense represent in many instances distinct classes of claims, and are really adjudications in certain test cases selected for the purpose of judicially settling the question applicable to such classes. In view of the importance of these decisions, some of the classes may be mentioned.

The following six cases brought against the Bannock and Pi-Ute tribes of Indians have been decided in favor of the defense. The decisions therein are directly applicable to more than two hundred cases still pending which involve nearly two million dollars. They are also applicable to all claims arising out of the Bannock Indian War. Two cases against the Creek tribe or nation of Indians have been decided by the court in favor of the defense. These decisions are directly applicable to 162 suits pending in the Court of Claims, as well as to each of the 1,003 claims, aggregating $1,272,722.20, examined by the Creek Commission, for depredations occurring during the Indian hostilities of 1836 in Alabama, Georgia, and Florida, generally known as the Creek War of 1836.

The Court of Claims has decided in favor of the defense in the action of Jesse L. Adams, No. 1416, brought against the Pitt River tribe or band of Indians for depredations committed in northern California in 1858. This decision is directly applicable to some twenty cases of like character still pending, and also to all other actions brought against the Pitt River tribe and other Indians for depredations committed in that section of the United States during the hostilities of 1858.

The case of James S. Valk, co-executor, etc., No. 475,

brought for depredations committed by the Rogue River tribe of Indians in Oregon, in 1856, has been decided in favor of the defense. The decision therein is directly applicable to several hundred cases pending in the court for losses that occurred during the general Indian War of 1855-56, in which not only the Rogue River but the Umpqua, Klickitat, Yakima, Cow Creek, Shasta, and other tribes were engaged in a general uprising against the whites which extended from California to Puget Sound. Not only so, but the decision on the subject of citizenship is applicable to many thousand cases brought under the first class, defined in Section 1 of the act of March 3, 1891. The question of citizenship as an essential requisite to claimants' recovery has also been decided by the court in the cases of Soren Anderson, No. 5355, and Hosford and Gagnon, Nos. 3912 and 3913.

Briefs and arguments on behalf of the Government and Indians have also been prepared and filed in other cases representing distinct classes of claims, which have not yet been passed upon by the Court.

Two thousand, nine hundred and forty claims aggregating nearly two and one-half millions, which arose on disturbances in Minnesota in 1862, will probably be determined by the decision in two test cases selected for the purpose.

Seventy-three claims arising from hostilities in Oregon in 1853, known as the Rogue River War, will probably be determined by the decision of four selected test cases.

Many other classes of cases will be similarly determined. The questions to be thus determined by test cases involve the time within which a claim must be presented. The liability of the government for private property taken by the enemy in time of war; the conclusive effect of old awards for Indian depredations; the liability for depredations committed in our territory by Indians from Canada or Mexico; the citizenship of Indians and of claimants; the citizenship of a corporation; and the effect of fraud in prior proof of claims.

Upon the decisions of the court in the foregoing test cases depends the liability of the Government to respond in dama-

ges to the amount of many millions of dollars. It is believed, however, that in each of the actions named the legal principles announced by the court in other cases already determined will relieve the Government and Indians from all liability in these several classes of claims.

In the following cases decided in favor of the defense, claimants' counsel have given notice of appeals to the Supreme Court of the United States or filed motions for new trials in the Court of Claims:

M. B. Welborn and others against the Creeks; John Dixon and others against the Bannock and Pi-Utes; James S. Valk against the Rogue River Indians; and Penny and Son against the Sioux.

In the case of Joshua Gorham, No. 4514, against the United States and the Kiowa and the Comanche tribes of Indians, involving the liability of the Government for depredations committed in the winter of 1868 in Texas, a dismissal was entered against the defendant tribes of Indians, but judgment rendered against the Government. A motion for a new trial in the Court of Claims has been filed on behalf of the Government, and the case is waiting argument thereon at the next term of court.

The appropriations provided by Congress for the defence of this class of actions for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1892, were $25,000, and for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1893, $35,000. The amount appropriated for the current fiscal year is only $22,500.

An examination of the Act of March 3, 1891, to provide for the adjudication and payment of claims arising from Indian depredations, discloses the fact that there is no provision whatever for service of process upon the defendant tribes of Indians, the only service contemplated being upon the Attorney-General, although the law provides for the entry of judgment against the Indians, as well as the Government, and for the payment of such judgment out of the tribal funds. There are grave questions which arise as to the constitutionality of this part of the law. The authority of Congress to

confer upon the Court of Claims power to render a personal judgment against any tribe, band, or nation of Indians, even with service of process, is questioned by many lawyers. The legal effect of such judgments, rendered without service of process upon the tribal funds has not yet been judicially determined. It would seem that the Constitution of the United States which prohibits a person from being deprived of life, liberty, or property without due process of law, should be held as applicable to Indians, and this important question will have to be determined in the final settlements had between the Government and the several tribes of Indians for the monies and trust funds held in the Treasury of the United States. It was decided by Judge Dundy, in the District Court of the United States for Nebraska, in the case of the United States, *ex rel*, Standing Bear, vs. George Crook, Brigadier-General of the Army of the United States, that the word "person" in the Constitution means human being, and that the Indian is a person. This express guarantee of the fundamental law of the nation is just as necessary for the Indian as the white man; and, according to the general principles of jurisprudence announced in all courts and all countries, a judgment without service of process upon the person charged, is absolutely void and of no force.

Where there are treaty stipulations with the Indian tribes which authorize the payment of claims for depredations committed, doubtless the Government without any judicial determination, might be authorized to pay the claims and charge them up against the funds of such tribe; but it is extremely doub ful if Congress has the power, without the authority of such treaties, to pass a valid law making the funds of the tribe liable for the depredations committed by individual members thereof. In no case should judgments be charged up against the trust fund of the Indians, unless expressly authorized by treaty. Unless clearly stipulated otherwise, this money should be left for the support and education of the Indians.

Most of the injuries for which actions are brought were

committed by the ancestors of the present generation of Indians, and it seems peculiarly unjust to them that their funds should be taken to pay for the misdoings of their forefathers.

The Government should carry out its agreements and promises to both citizens and Indians in good faith; it should pay the legitimate claims of all persons to whom it promised eventual indemnification, but it should only charge up and deduct from the trust funds of the Indians, claims for such losses as are clearly authorized by the express terms of the treaties. Where there is no provision or reservation in the treaty with the Indians for money to be taken out for losses from depredations, such action should never be had by any branch of the Government. Good faith on the part of the nation, as well as common honesty, prohibits the payment of this class of claims out of the trust funds, without the full knowledge and consent of the Indians. These funds have been placed in the Treasury of the United States, under the sacred stipulations of solemn treaties, to be used for the support, education, and civilization of a people who are acknowledged to have many characteristics worthy of preservation and adoption by the present dominant race. National good faith will not permit their diversion to other purposes, and the adjudications upon legal principles administered in the courts for centuries are in accord with the requirements of good faith. Let Congress legislate for Indians as it does for white men; let the laws for all be executed alike; let our courts interpret the Statutes without regard to condition, color or race, having in mind the rights of man as guaranteed by the Constitution and vouchsafed by the eternal principles of natural justice which are the foundation of all law, and there will be no danger arising to the funds sacredly set apart for the education, civilization and enlightenment of the remaining representatives of the former noble and powerful races occupying the territory now inhabited by the most civilized nation of the world.

XUM

THE PRESENT CRISIS.

BY HON. HENRY L. DAWES.

Ladies and Gentlemen:—Dr. Abbott intimated, although he did not quite endorse it himself, that the general impression was that it was impossible to secure a general public opinion in recognition of the rights of the Indian. This is a mistake and I do not see how anybody can look back upon the last fifteen years and even countenance for a minute such a sentiment.

The policy under which we are acting is just fifteen years old, and what has been accomplished in that time? The first dollar that the United States ever took of its own money for the education of the Indian was put at the disposal of the Indian Commissioner in the year 1878, and it was twenty thousand dollars. The next year it was thirty thousand dollars, the next sixty thousand; and last year it was two millions and a quarter. In that fifteen years the United States treasury has appropriated about seventeen million dollars for the education of the Indian, and in recognition of his rights in this land. The people of the United States have forced Congress, in that time, to make one third of that race citizens of the United States, with all the rights, privileges, and immunities, and subject to all the obligations of citizens of the United States. It has opened to them all the courts, guaranteed to their heirs, according to the statutes of the states in which they live, the descent of their property; defined the marriage relation, defined the legitimacy of their children. It has put one-third of them all, in these fifteen years, on an equality in every respect with us, so that they enjoy the rights which you and I enjoy. Does anybody tell me that any other undertaking depending upon an association of widely separated persons, and the agitation of issues, has

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An Address at the Mohonk Indian Conference.

accomplished more in the last fifteen years than this work? I should like to know what it is.

I am not here to argue disputed questions. I have been requested to talk a little about the appropriation bills, and therefore I will not stop to argue with Dr. Abbott or any one of you the question whether it were wise or unwise for your churches to cut loose from the United States Government in this work. I have always refused to argue it, though I have my own private opinion of it as an original question. I have been like that old man building the walls of Jerusalem, whom those other fellows wanted to come down and argue with them; I have had something else to do. I feel on this question of the appropriations that to-day the Indian is in a crisis. I know it is the way with public speakers to talk about crises, and the politicians have them annually on their hands. But I shall be much mistaken if I do not show you that the Indian is in a crisis, on the result of which will depend the ultimate result for good or evil of all the work we have done.

The Indian is coming out from barbarism into citizenship, but he is coming out by a process that no other barbarian ever went through. Others in such circumstances have come up by degrees, step by step, and have never lifted one foot out of the mire until they have been able to put the other upon firm ground. But the process by which the Indian is brought out of barbarism into citizenship is an instantaneous process, and the process, I am sorry to say, has involved little instrumentality of his own in the accomplishment of the fact. Allotment makes him instantaneously a citizen. To-day he is in his blanket, and his war-paint in the tepee; you give him a hundred and sixty acres of land in severalty, and to-morrow he has ceased to be a ward of the United States. He has escaped much as a bird escapes out of the cage door. He has thrown off every particle of control that the United States had over him. He has no title to a dollar of money for his education from the treasury of the United States. He is a citizen like me.

That is not all. The United States has put him upon one

hundred and sixty acres of land, and has declared that it will hold that land for him for twenty-five years free from all state taxes or any other charge whatever. And yet if he is to be educated at all, unless the United States shall educate him, he must be educated by that state which, the United States says, shall not tax a dollar of his property to defray the expenses of his education. There are whole counties in some of these western states to-day, all made up of allotted Indians, and not a foot of their land can be taxed by those states. The state must supply out of its treasury, their school houses if they have them, their roads if they have them, their bridges if they have them, their court-houses if they have them. The state must maintain order among them if they have order. And the white people of the other counties of the state, must pay for all these things. Therefore it is, that, while the United States is forcing this process, there comes upon the Government a louder call than ever for increased appropriation and more efficient work on its part, to supply that which it has declared the state shall not do. It is in lieu of the taxation it has forbidden.

The exigency of the Indian at this point is like that of a man in a boat nearing the shore, when he pushes his boat out from under him with one foot before he gets the other upon solid ground. The chances are against him, unless the United States at this point meets with renewed vigor and with larger effort and appropriation the exigency and the crisis. If he survives this crisis he goes on well; if not, the last end of the Indian will be worse than the first. That is why it is incumbent upon every friend of the Indian to present his cause to Congress with more earnestness than ever before, with clearer conception of the complication into which the policy of the United States has brought his relation with the states in which he is living.

You must take the Indian by the hand, and see to it that he does not fall back into the stream. The Government must do it. You cannot ask the state of Nebraska to take three counties of allotted Indians, not a foot of whose land can be taxed

for twenty-five years for the support and civilization of those who live in these counties; you cannot ask Nebraska, with any expectation that she will respond, to meet the needs of the Omaha Indians at this moment. Pretty soon the state will rebel against this idea of having all this allotted land exempt for twenty-five years from taxation; and the United States must provide an equivalent. That equivalent is to do for these Indians now, and in this matter, what the Government has put it out of the power of the state to do.

Now how are you going to do it? You are going to do it, if at all, with an increased appropriation for his civilization and support, through the process of education. And how are you going to succeed in getting this increased appropriation?

You are to get this money through Congress. The plan proposed to you by Dr. Abbott is a grand plan, but the United States Congress has to be moved, and how is it best to move Congress? But let me say, from my observation, that there is no hostility to the Indian in Congress. Congress is made up of two or three sorts of men. One is the men who are indifferent to the Indian's welfare. They have never had any contact with him, and they have believed that he was passing away, and that we should get clear of him very soon. Another class is made up of those in whom economy predominates; they subordinate everything else in an appropriation bill to this over-ruling desire to see how small it can be. I was chairman of a committee on appropriations in the House for two years, and I know how it is. The third class is the class that does not know what the situation is. It has come to be that the administration of Indian affairs in Congress has fallen into new hands. It could not be otherwise. They do not know the subject as those do who have worked for twenty years in it. They must be taught to comprehend the full scope of this problem, and its bearing, not upon the Indian alone, but also upon the people of the states in which the Indian lives. They must be educated, as well as the Indian himself, who is becoming a feature and

factor in the Government, and whose vote is as good as the vote of any white man at the ballot-box. Now let me tell you how I would approach Congress in this matter. I will tell you first what I would *not* do. I would not get up a petition to Congress, and have copies printed, all in the same words, and then sent from a central office all over the country, to come back to be presented to Congress, precisely in the same words from every part of the country. There was a time in the history of Congress when petitions had an influence; but let me say to you that in my opinion that time has gone by. Congress has become familiar with machine work.

Another thing I would not do. When there is something of special interest to you pending in Congress, I would not go to a printing-office with a half-bushel of postal cards, and have printed on the back of them, "I protest against this thing," or "This thing ought to be done," and leave a blank for the name and the place and a date, and send them off into the country and have them come back to Congress by the peck. Let me give you an illustration. The whole northern country was aroused about the removal of the Southern Utes, and the chairman of the Committee on Indian Affairs was intensely wrought up, trying to prevent that removal. It was desirable to get up a public sentiment against this removal. How was it done? Somebody got ten thousand, I should think, of these cards printed, the words of every one just the same, only the difference of the date and the man's name at the bottom. They were sent through the country, and they came into Washington,—three-fourths of them to the chairman of the committee who was already doing his best to prevent the removal,—urging him to use his influence against the removal of the Utes! A Southern senator came to me once, with two of these cards, one dated in Massachusetts and another in Arkansas, on the same day. He put them together and said, "There is not a comma's difference between these two. How in the world did the man in Arkansas happen to write exactly what the man in Massachusetts

did?" These things not only have no influence; they are worse. The member of Congress who gets them puts them into the waste-basket as fast as they come.

I will tell you what I did once. I was chairman of a Committee of Ways and Means in the House, and there was a measure in which a gentleman from another district was intensely interested. He came to me to see about it. "How can I get the members of Congress interested in this?" he asked. I said, "I will tell you. If you can find anybody in the district represented by A.B. whom you can interest in this, get him to sit down and, in his own language, write to his member of Congress about it. If you cannot find anybody in his district that takes an interest in it, you may be sure you cannot get *him* interested. Then go to the next district, and find some one there who will, in his own words, write his interest in this business to his member of Congress." In about a week or ten days a member came to me saying, "I have a letter from one of my constituents on this subject." Then another came, saying the same thing, and so on; and so the thing was accomplished. The member of Congress had been able to interest these constituents, and they in turn interested each his member, and in that way the matter was decided.

Take hold of this matter. See to it that no member of Congress has any peace at your hands, or at the hands of his own constituents, and the work is done.

Every year, until last year, there has been an increased appropriation for the education of the Indians. There was more need for an increase last year than ever. Why did it fall short? When the American Missionary Association in Hartford decided to withdraw from accepting any portion of the United States's money,—without entering into the wisdom of the matter,—I thought I saw that the appropriations committee would claim that so much was saved to them. They said, "The churches are not going to abandon this work. They will notify us that they will carry it on themselves, and we shall be saved so much." I was afraid of that

result. It is one thing to withdraw; it is quite another thing to let the withdrawal inure in point of money to those whose supreme end is the reduction of the appropriation bill. Those who had charge of the bill found it impossible to increase the appropriation. They were met by the argument, "All this money that we have heretofore appropriated in this bill for the churches, the churches have declined to take, and will carry on the work themselves. Why then should we not save the Government so much?" That is one reason why for the first time in fifteen years the appropriation has fallen below, instead of rising above, the mark of the previous year.

I believe this work is to be accomplished. I do not expect to have any hand in it. But it is going on; it has gone beyond the point where it could be reversed. But it can be starved, it can be crippled, it can be postponed, and the beneficial results put off in the distance. And the evils inseparable from this sudden transition from a state of barbarism to a full American citizenship may be felt even more than at present. But ultimately it will be accomplished. It will come within the life of some of you. During the life of most of you, perhaps, the last tepee upon the plain shall have given place to enlightened citizenship, and to the home, with womanhood at the fireside and manhood at the threshold.

A HELPING HAND.

BY LIZZIE E. M. GALLIARD.

Thy brother is out on life's ocean,
His strength may be less than thine;
The billows almost o'erwhelm him,
Yet you give him no outward sign
That you are willing to aid him,
When his vessel is threatened to strand;
Tho' he needs you, my loved one, he needs you,
And needs your helping hand.

A sister so loving and gentle,
Is tenderly sheltered and fed,
Yet suddenly launched to the tempest,
Must struggle for daily bread.
Ah! much she needs your courage
Her vessel safe to command;
She needs your cheering spirit
And needs your helping hand.

We may think our craft is failing,
So we idly close our eyes,
While many a brother has perished
And sunken never to rise.
For we're guilty in many cases
If they reach not the heavenly land,
For to us was given the power
To lend them a helping hand.

There are hands of lily whiteness,
With form of perfect mould.
Mayhap they're decked with diamonds,
The fingers encircled with gold,
And yet they will lack true beauty
If they have no purpose grand;
But there's naught in the world so lovely,
As the hand that's a helping hand.

XUM

BOTH SIDES OF IT.

BY E. B. GURTON.

[Among other merits, this little story has the merit that in substance it is true.—Editor LEND A HAND.]

"See that this order goes out by the next mail, will you Barton?"

"Yes sir."

"Oh—and Barton, I am going to raise your salary $500 a year, to begin next pay-day, that is tomorrow."

"I wouldn't, Mr. Robinson. You pay me all I earn now. Really I'm not worth any more to you at present. But I'll tell you what, sir, if you're going to raise anybody's pay, it ought to be Jones's the book-keeper's. He's doing splendid work, and *he* isn't paid what he's worth."

Mr. Robinson looked sharply at Barton's eager face. He was having a new experience. He had seldom offered to raise any man's pay, never by so large an amount at once, and never had his offer been refused. He was not quite sure that the refusal was not for effect.

"Hadn't you better think twice about this, Barton? I can afford to make one raise of $500, and I think you're the man to have it."

"I am sure I am not, sir. You pay me all I'm worth in the business now, and Jones ought to have it. Just think what he does, and how he does it, and really, sir, he isn't paid enough. Jones is the man to have it, Mr. Robinson."

"Well, Jones shall have it then. You won't lose by this in the long run, either."

Frank Barton went back to his desk with a warm feeling of satisfaction, and soon forgot the matter in the details of his work. When he started for home, however, it all came back to his mind, and for the first time he thought that perhaps his young wife might wish that he had taken the money offered him. "I wonder if Mabel will care?" he thought. "It would make things easier for her, and she

could have had those concert-tickets, and a new coat this winter, and we could have given some dinners. I wonder if I had a right to refuse without asking her?" By the time he reached home he quite dreaded telling her, and the result was that when Mabel opened the door she saw such an expression of anxiety that she said at once, "Why Frank, what is the matter?"

He told her just what had occurred, and to his infinite relief she exclaimed—"Oh I *am* so glad! The Joneses needed money so much with all those boys to educate, and Mr. Jones works so hard!"

"Then you don't mind, Mabel? We could have done so many nice things with the money—concerts, dinners, coats and things!"

"Mind! Why Frank, you don't really think I could mind? Why, we do very well as we are, and I do like to see how far I can make our money go. It would be nice to have concerts and 'things' of course, but I am perfectly happy as I am. Besides, I'm so proud of you, Frank! I'd a deal rather you wouldn't take more than you feel you are worth, and besides the Joneses do need it very much, and he does earn it, so it's only *just*. Now come to dinner."

At about the same hour in a fine house on a fashionable street, Mr. Robinson, with his wife and son, sat at dinner, the former more silent than was his wont.

When dessert was served he said suddenly: "Tom, do you think you could enter Harvard College this autumn?"

"Oh Father, do you mean, really?"

"Well, yes, I don't suppose you could enter any other way, could you?"

"But you said I couldn't go. You said college men weren't any good in business, and—"

"And I said to myself that if I ever saw a college man that amounted to shucks and didn't put on airs, I'd let you take your chance—if it wasn't too late. And now I've seen him. It's Frank Barton down at the store, and he's worth six of any man I ever had in his place, and he's a Harvard

graduate. Now I'll tell you,—I says to him to day—'Barton, I'm going to pay you $500 a year more.'

"'*I wouldn't*,' says he, 'I'm not worth it. You pay me all I earn now, but if you're going to raise anybody's pay there's Jones, he ain't paid all *he* earns, you better raise his!' He didn't say it exactly like that, but that was the sum of it, and I did raise Jones, and now I tell you, Tom, you'd better make up to young Barton, for you're mighty likely to find him junior partner when you get out of college!"

"I'll go out and see him tomorrow," said Tom.

"Well, ask him what it'll cost to put you through college, and give you all the fun," said his father.

"Take some grapes and flowers to Mrs. Barton,—the Hamburgs are just right now," said his mother.

"You needn't mention the partnership," said Mr. Robinson.

"Not if I know it!" said Tom. "It would simply spoil what he did to have him get paid for it right off. I tell you, Dad, that was immense, wasn't it?"

"It was a fine thing to do. He doesn't know his own value, but *I do*; so it's all right, and he'll learn in time."

"I wonder what his wife said," said Mrs. Robinson.

FLOATING HOSPITALS.

BY RUFUS B. TOBEY.

Some years ago the city editor of a leading New York daily newspaper was crossing the City Hall Park, when he saw a small group of children under a tree near the fountain, and from their conversation learned that they were playing "being in the country." As he had just sent his family away from the city for a summer's outing, the scene made a marked impression on him. He narrated the incident to the managing editor of the paper, and as a result, the first Fresh Air movement was organized, the pioneer of all similar schemes in New York and elsewhere.

Archimedes never found his "Pou sto," but the modern philanthropist in the social world has found the fulcrum on which to move and raise the world. It is the sick child. No more telling appeal can be made than the object lesson of a little one oppressed by hunger or disease, and the proof of this is the history of the Floating Hospital work, which for more than a quarter of a century, has been carried on under the auspices of St. John's Guild, New York city. This particular phase of the Fresh (salt) Air work came under consideration when a corps of 140 volunteers in St. John's parish visited one season 7,000 families to ascertain their needs and provide relief. Investigation showed beyond question that during the summer months, when *cholera infantum* and other diseases incident to the season prevailed, something more was needed than home treatment or even an excursion or outing into the country.

In 1874 an ordinary excursion barge was hired, and one trip weekly in New York harbor made during the heated season. The success of the movement was assured from the start. In the following winter the hull of a steamboat whose upper works had been burned, was purchased, and upon the thoroughly sound and strong hull were built upper decks, with various hospital appliances. The hold was utilized as a dining room, the little windows serving for light and ventilation, additional ventilation being furnished by two shafts run from the ceiling of the hull to the outer air on the hurricane deck. On each side of the main deck forward, a small room was built to serve as a ward to hold cribs for the very sick children who might be brought on, those too ill to be intrusted to the mothers' arms in the large crowds on the upper decks. The promenade deck was left entirely open, giving a space 175 by 36 feet, where on long benches the women were seated, the chief medicine put within their reach being the inhalations of salt air charged with the ozone from three thousand miles of the Atlantic ocean.

The first trip of the vessel known as the Floating Hospital was made July 19, 1875. From that time to 1887, inclusive,

XUM

three trips per week were made, each including a start from a point on the North River and a point on the East River. In 1888 the work was further developed by making four trips per week, with two starting points on each river. Mondays and Thursdays on the North River, Tuesdays and Fridays on the East River, each trip being made directly from the last starting point on each river to the lower bay, thereby avoiding the consumption of time about the docks with one-half the boat-load of beneficiaries.

This service was continued during 1888, '89, and '90. In 1891 a further development to five trips was inaugurated, the additional trip being given to the east side of the city, from whence came the largest numbers. For two years the service was thus operated, and 1893 the point long looked forward to was reached, namely six trips per week, three from each side of the city, and between July 12 and August 31 of this year, there were carried 43,584 sick babies, and worn, weary, and exhausted mothers.

In 1888 the possibility of using a portion of the main deck as a salt water bath-room was conceived, and five small tubs were connected with the pumping engine which supplied salt water to the boat for flushing purposes, and during that summer 1380 children and a few women were given salt water baths, the bathing being permitted in the bay below Governor's Island only, thus insuring a purity of water impossible at points immediately adjacent to the docks. Every year since, the possibilities, and with them the service of this bath-room, have increased by substituting spray baths for three of the tubs, and during the last summer taking one half of the former staff dining-room to add to the salt water bath-room. The fact that 10,177 women and children received the benefits of this room during the summer of 1893 is felt by the management to be a most gratifying proof of the wisdom of its introduction.

At the outset of this work it was necessary to go into the by-ways and hedges and compel the mothers to bring their children to the fountain of health, but in process of time the

merits and benefits of the work became so widely known that no special effort on the part of the managers of the Floating Hospital was necessary. A list of the agencies through which the distribution of tickets was effected, and the number so distributed in 1891 will be of interest:

The Board of Health	12,000
Hospitals and Dispensaries	11,724
The "Evening World" Corps of Physicians	3,400
Charitable Institutions	1,637
Physicians	3,436
Trustees and Members of St. John's Guild .	853
	33,050

In the present year 16,268 persons were carried on the fifteen trips between July 12 and August 31, an average of more than 1,000 to a trip.

No one can fully appreciate the value of a day's outing in its health giving results until he considers the opportunity it affords for instructing the mothers how to properly care for their children at home. Efforts have been previously unsuccessfully made to instruct mothers in the hygiene of childhood, but until now Mohammed would not come to the mountain, and the mountain must be brought to Mohammed. When on the barge these mothers come into contact with skilled physicians and trained nurses. They are not only provided with sterilized milk, but are taught how to prepare it, and instructed to its uses and benefits, and are given instructions in many other particulars. This, which may be called the educational department of the work, that which gives it its permanent influence, is constantly receiving additional attention, and there are many instances which show the gratitude of the mothers and their appreciation of the opportunities afforded to learn how better to care for their children.

It soon became evident that there were cases where more than a day was necessary to restore health, and the outcome of this was the Seaside Hospital, for which a building was

XUM

purchased on the lower side of Staten Island in 1877. It faces the ocean and is open on every side to the invigorating air; sufficiently far from the city to secure seclusion, it is yet near enough to be easy of access both by boat and rail. The present central building and one wing were built in 1881; the second in 1888; a new and separate building, with dining-room on the ground floor, was built in 1893. The value of this Seaside Hospital as an adjunct to the work of the barge cannot be estimated, and as illustrative of the care given to the little patients there, the following may be cited among many similar cases: A little girl was admitted for the second time on a Saturday evening, and it was found that in the two or three days she had been away she had had a very bad diarrhœa, which speedily developed into dysentery. On Monday evening the doctor said she was in a very critical condition, and the nurse was directed to have the mother telegraph for the father. As the nurse approached her, the mother seemed to divine the nature of her errand, and fell into a hysterical state in which she continued for a week. It was ten days before it was known whether the baby could live, and not one of the five physicians who saw her would prophecy her ultimate recovery. Both the mother and child were retained in the hospital until the day before it was closed. They were discharged in fairly good condition. Subsequently the mother wrote to the nurse "if my Clara is with me now, it is to you I owe her life."

Another letter may be quoted entire: "I take the liberty of addressing you in order to express in some measure the heartfelt thankfulness which both my wife and self feel toward your institution and toward those who have been so untiring in their efforts to save for us our baby Margaret, who died at your hospital on the 28th. We feel very thankful for the treatment and help which we received, the nurses being extremely attentive and kind, and we feel that the doctor who attended her case, did everything that could be done for her. To one who has had several such sorrows in life, none would I say have I felt as keenly as the parting from

my little one, which you will readily understand when I say that she was our first, but I feel that everything was done for her, so take this means in her memory (and in which my wife joins me) of thanking yourselves, the doctor, and the nurses at the hospital for the kindness which has been bestowed upon her and on us."

But it was found that increased opportunities meant increased obligations, and at the end of the short season during which cases could be cared for on the barge and at the Seaside Hospital, there were patients who needed still further attention if the lives of the little ones were to be saved, and the demand for a city hospital where children of the same character as were noticed and touched in the summer work, might be received, so impressed itself upon the management of the work that they secured means whereby to open a house with twenty-four cots. Tickets for admission to this hospital are sent to the various hospitals and dispensaries, and so rapidly has the work grown, and so urgent is the necessity for it, that they have been obliged to hire an adjoining building. The work done here is purely that of a children's hospital.

"One touch of nature makes the whole world kin." This movement began as a denominational work, but it grew so large that it obliterated denominational lines and broke down sectarian fences; so that to-day it is the work of St. John's Guild in name rather than in fact, although the leaders of the movement are still from the church which started it.

The question has occurred once and again: Why not start the enterprise in Boston? Even those who deprecate the springing up of new forms of charity freely concede the need of a floating hospital in Boston harbor. The writer has made careful inquiries from year to year in reference to the New York work, and a few months since incidentally spoke to a newspaper reporter of the need of a like charity here. This lady expanded the conversation into a couple of columns, which were published, and the interest thereby aroused has

become so widespread that at least a start must be made in the summer of 1894 in Boston.

It is too early yet to outline our plan, but several things are assured.

First, a landing-place on a certain beach in the harbor, where dinner can be served.

Second, the gift of a lot of land on which a Seaside Hospital will be built sooner or later; and best of all;

The co-operation of leaders of philanthropic and charitable work in the city.

The proffered gift of land necessitates the existence of a corporation to control it, and such a body ought to be organized as a guaranty that contributions for the Floating Hospital shall be properly expended. Before the close of the present year at least one representative from each of the different denominations, including the Roman Catholic and Jewish, should become incorporated and ready for business when the new year opens.

The sum total of good which can be accomplished of course depends upon the amount of money received. A barge will be hired for the first season, to make one trip per week down the harbor. Additional trips will be made if the funds permit, but it is desired to move cautiously the first season, and to show, as an object lesson, the movement of the enterprise during this season, so that charitably disposed people may be satisfied that their gifts in this direction are a good investment.

The mere statement that such a work was contemplated has been sufficient to bring several gifts of money to the writer, which will serve as a nucleus for the future expense fund. When the plan for the summer's work can be given somewhat in detail, an appeal will be made to the public, and from indications thus far there seems to be no doubt that this will be met with a generous response.

There is no other agency which will so effectively lower the summer death rate among children in Boston as the Floating Hospital and the Seaside Institution to be con-

nected with it; and it is not believed that the new appeal will cripple the finances of any existing Fresh Air or Summer Work organization.

NOTE.—The writer is indebted to Mr. John P. Faure, Secy. of St. John's Guild, for much of the data used in this article.

CHILD-SAVING.

BY C. D. RANDALL.

It is the question of the hour, the problem of the age. It was when the world began, and it is to-night. What shall we do for the children? The inquiry was new when there were at first two sons, one of whom was right, while the other was a criminal and a fugitive. Since then, in the same family and society, sometimes under elevating and again under debasing influences, one child has come out of the ordeal virtuous, and the other vicious. The history of child-life has the brightest and the darkest pages in the history of the race. Its recital presents tableaux beautiful and terrible. If there be anything for which man should be blessed, it is for his love and kindness to children. If there be anything for which man should be cursed, it is his cruelty to children. Through all time the child surrounded by the luxuries of affluence has fallen through idleness and enervating influences, and has often found his way to vice, dependence, and crime. The children of the poor are most exposed, and reach their sad fate through destitution, evil associations, and intemperance. The last ranks first as the most deadly enemy of childhood, and of itself causes poverty, and brings evil asso-

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Report of the Committee on Child-Saving Work. A paper read before the National Conference of Charities and Correction at Chicago.

ciation. And yet how hard has poverty been upon the young! The Christian philosopher may say of poverty as Pascal did, "I love poverty because Jesus Christ loved it;" but he did not have in mind the poverty which Victor Hugo wrote of when he said, "Poverty is that wonderful and terrible trial from which the feeble come out infamous, from which the strong come out sublime, the crucible into which destiny casts a man whenever she desires a scoundrel or a demigod." If man fails in such an ordeal, what may we expect of little children? The history of child-life tells us, and we know by our observation and experience, that as long as the children are exposed to temptation many will fall, and from their numbers the hosts of dependents and delinquents will be recruited.

What shall be done for dependent and delinquent children? has never been asked with more emphasis than within the past twenty years. In Europe and America there has been a new crusade carried on for children. Private and public charity have broadened in their inceptions, and been more intelligent in their performance. The inquiry has been not How little can be done? but, What ought to be done? The history of child-saving work in the last twenty years cannot be told in this brief address. Your committee early recognized this, and by the kind assistance of others not members of the committee has prepared a volume uniform with the Proceedings of the National Conference of Charities and Correction, for distribution among the members of the National and International Conference, which contains histories of some of the principal movements in child-saving work in this country covering the period named. This volume is composed of monographs by prominent writers who are best acquainted with the subjects on which they write. This volume has been published by the committee, the writers bearing all the expense of the work. It is presented to the actual members of the Conference as the contribution of the writers to the cause. The committee intends this volume, so far as it goes, as the history contemplated for this occasion.

There have been remarkable changes in our ideas in penology, pauperism, and prevention within twenty years. The papers and discussions in prison associations and in charity conferences twenty years ago did not have the character of to-day. Then the prison discussions were on discipline and the construction of prisons, and somewhat on reformation. Charity discussion was more how to treat, handle, and dispose of the multitude of unfortunates. Since then prevention has intruded upon the meetings, and would be heard. Twenty years ago the literature of prevention was limited, and in it there was very little to aid the student in his researches after better methods. What a change has been made since then! Prevention for years has had a hearing, and to-day such as it never had before. This has been brought about by various causes, including the progress of the times, which in this work is accelerated by labors of devoted specialists and organizations, prominent in which has been the National Conference of Charities and Correction. Another cause has been the assistance of women in the work. We have seen them in national and international associations as speakers and writers of intelligence, force, and influence, in reformatory and charitable institutions as superintendents and members of boards of control, where they have been capable and efficient. They have carried into the work a motherly solicitude, a love for family life, and softening influences strengthening in their effect. The writings of European specialists and the experiences and legislation there have had a marked influence in America; and the new thoughts and new methods of America, which is *par excellence* the land of advance and reform, have been received with welcome abroad, and have been incorporated into systems there or have modified them. States have copied each other's laws and methods, and profited by each other's experiences. In these various ways advances have been made, some of which will be mentioned relative to children.

The close of the nineteenth century witnesses the recognition of sociology as a science as never before. While in

several universities lectures have been occasionally given on the subject, it was not given a department with lectures through the year until this was done in the Chicago University. This department is in charge of the Rev. Dr. Henderson, who, as a student and teacher, has made this department one of great importance, and one which we expect to be of great usefulness. The child problem will have full attention in the Chicago University.

Removal of Children from the County Poorhouses.

In 1876 the Hon. William P. Letchworth, LL.D., presented to the National Prison Association, held in the city of New York, the following resolution, which was unanimously adopted :—

Resolved, That it be recommended to the members of this Congress, and all others interested in the reforms which it seeks to effect, to use their best efforts to bring about, whenever practicable, such legislation as shall cause dependent children to be removed from county poorhouses, city and town almshouses, and common jails, and from all association with adult paupers and criminals, and placed in families, asylums, and other appropriate institutions.

The state of New York, through the efforts of our distinguished and beloved co-worker, Mr. Letchworth, enacted a law substantially in keeping with the tenor of this resolution ; and to him belongs the honor of inaugurating the great work of excluding dependent children from the county poorhouses. Their confinement in county poorhouses with adult inmates had existed for generations, and continues now in many of our states. These houses are, as they always were, nurseries of pauperism and crime. The impressionable child lived there in common with the vicious, insane, and idiotic, in close and familiar association, and was soon contaminated. Michigan had in 1871 provided a home for its dependent children, virtually excluding them from the county poorhouses, and subsequently enacted the New York statute, positively excluding the children from the county poorhouses. Penn-

sylvania soon enacted the New York law. Some other states did the same; and, although the states generally have not followed, yet the correctness of its principle is admitted by all.

Classification.

In Mr. Letchworth's resolution, and in the laws of Michigan and New York, the idea of a better classification appears in reference to dependent and delinquent children. The removal of the children from county poorhouses was the first necessary step to classification. Michigan about that time passed an act which provided that children under sixteen years of age should not be confined in jails in the same rooms or cells with adult prisoners. Other states have followed with similar provisions, and the principle is accepted as correct. It is well known that a vicious child will corrupt his companion sooner than an adult will spoil the child. The most radical classification which requires the separation of delinquent and dependent children exists in Michigan, Wisconsin, Minnesota, and Rhode Island. The general adoption of this classification would hasten the decline of child dependence and crime.

The Protection of Children from Cruelty.

There has been a decided advance in ideas in this respect within twenty years, which has led to important legislation. The noted New York society for the protection of children has been of unlimited benefit to the public and ill-treated children, and its influence has led to the creation of numerous similar societies in this country. Laws relative to punishment of offenders for ill-treatment and the forfeiture of parental rights for the cruel treatment of children, have been matured, and definitions which heretofore were crude and left too much in the discretion of the court have been made clearer. The definition in the Michigan statute is probably the most concise and broadest, as it covers not only physical, but mental and moral ill-treatment. An ill-treated child is defined to be:—

First.—One whose father, mother, or guardian shall habitually violate or permit such child to violate Sections 1, 2, 5, and 6 of this act. [These sections prohibit parents, etc., from permitting their children to act as beggars, acrobats, etc., and frequenting liquor saloons, selling obscene papers, etc.

Second.—One whose father, mother, or guardian habitually causes or permits the health of such child to be injured, or his health or life to be endangered by exposure, want, or other injury to his person, or causes or permits him to engage in any occupation that will be likely to endanger his health or life, or deprave his morals.

Third.—One whose father, mother, or guardian is an habitual drunkard or a person of notorious and scandalous conduct, or a reputed thief or prostitute, or one who habitually permits him to frequent public places for the purpose of begging or receiving alms, or to frequent the company of or consort with reputed thieves or prostitutes with or without such father, mother, or guardian, or by any other act, example, or vicious training depraves the morals of such child.

Under this act parental rights are forfeited and the child committed to the State Public School, or may be placed directly in an approved home by the court. The law will be found in full in the reports of this Conference for the meeting in San Francisco. A California paper stated that, if for nothing else, it was worth holding the Conference there to learn Michigan's definition of ill-treatment.

The protection of children under the common law and by recent statutes has, of late, become more certain. The old English common law gave the father absolute control of the child. The tendency for many years has been, in legislation and in the courts, to place the rights of the state and child first, and the parents last. The welfare of the state is always involved in that of the child. Now the universal rule is, and greatly strengthened within twenty years, that the custody of the child shall be trusted to the parent best fit to have charge of its training, and, if neither parent is, then to award it to some suitable person or institution.

State Custody of Dependent Children.

The most significant advance during the past twenty years is state custody, supervision, and support of dependent children. This includes their education and placing in family homes through the agency of a central home in which they are collected, and from whence they are restored to family life. This system was established in Michigan in 1871, and put in operation in 1874,—nineteen years ago. That was the first state or government that had ever undertaken such a work. It has proved eminently successful. This is the system which has been adopted in Minnesota, Wisconsin, and Rhode Island, and has been very favorably considered in other states.

The history of this system is fully described in the volume presented by this committee, the writer being Mr. Galen A. Merrill, superintendent of the Minnesota State Public School. The correctness of the theory on which this system is based has been generally commended. Its more general adoption has been prevented by local influences, especially by the opposition of old precedents, established usages, conflicting interests, and the distrust of anything that is new. But this system has established its great economy and its usefulness for the state and the children beyond all question. In Michigan it has reduced child dependence in nineteen years fifty per cent. at least, while the population has increased at least seventy per cent. In other states child dependence has increased in greater ratio than the population, and the expenses have become enormous. Papers read in this Conference show in other states the increased child dependence in a greater ratio than the population. If for no other reason, the past twenty years have been more remarkable for the inauguration of this system than has any other twenty years in the history of child-saving. The system is not limited as private charity necessarily is, but cares for all the dependent children of the State, restoring them to family homes.

As Members of the Family.

In visiting English and Scottish institutions, and there are many of high grade, I saw as bright girls and boys as one could find; and to my inquiries for what they were trained, the universal answer was, "For domestic service." That was discouraging to me. Generally, in America, the dependent child has a better chance in life, and especially under the Michigan system, where the contract of indenture requires that the child "shall be treated as a member of the family." That means the child is to be at the same table, in the same schoolhouse, in the same church, and in the same social life with the family. This is a remarkable advance over the harshness of old English apprenticeship, which has found little way in America. Training for domestic service has not yet become an idea in American institutions. Here they are trained for equal citizens, and for that of course our opportunities are best.

The Work of Private Charities.

The amount of work done by the private charities in this country is immense. It has increased from year to year until it is of very great magnitude. The development of private charity will be found partly described in the volume of this committee, but its full study must be obtained from reports of the institutions. In general, the methods pursued have been commendable, and the results highly satisfactory; and their influence has been marked on the progress of child-saving in this country.

The ideal system to accomplish the most good in child-saving has not been reached. All systems have their merits and defects. Here are some suggestions given as to the features of an ideal system.

1. State supervision and control of all public and private institutions for children to the extent necessary to secure full protection to the children in their civil and natural rights.

2. No child to be placed in a public or private institution except on judicial finding and approval that the child is dependent or delinquent.

3. All public and private institutions required to place dependent children in approved family homes within a reasonable time, the same course to be pursued with delinquent children, when practicable.

4. The State to furnish aid to public institutions only, but to give full encouragement otherwise to private charities, reserving supervision.

5. The protection of ill-treated children by the execution of stringent provisions of law and forfeiture of parental rights, when necessary to that end.

6. Always the radical separation of dependent and delinquent children.

In connection with the first clause attention is called to Miss Minton's paper in the full report of this committee, also to Mr. Letchworth's. When we show that in less than twenty years Michigan has reversed the rule of the ages that pauperism and crime increase in greater ratio than the population, the question of this hour is, Why will not other states for both humanity and economy do likewise? The answer is brief. In the older states especially, systems like that of New York and California have created influences that must involve the public in the maintenance of present conditions for a long time to come. We will hope for the best, especially from states which are freer to act. In twenty years from now there should be no institution for children with even three hundred inmates. The institution should be only the half-way house while the child is on its way to a home. Detention in institutions for dependents or delinquents should only be to fit them for restoration to family homes. When this is done, our institution for children will have many vacant rooms, and many more family homes will be blessed by the presence of children. To reach that result, the humanitarian labors to-day, now with encouragement and then with disappointment, but never surrendering. We think

XUM

the future will measure men better than now. Some time we will not revere most the queen of the empire or the princess of to-day who receives our acclamations, but the Mary Carpenters who devoted their lives for the holy cause of the little children. In the future among the names of men we shall place highest those of John Howard of England, Baccaria of Italy, and Enoch Wines of America, because they loved their fellows, even in the dungeons.

But in the better age we shall not honor most the man who devised the best prison or matured the highest system of prison discipline, but the man or the woman who reaches down among the lowly and rescues the little child from the hardness of poverty and the danger of crime, and elevates it to a higher and better life.

The December number of LEND A HAND will be a double one. It will contain full reports of the *New England Conference of Charities and Corrections*, which was held in October, last. The Conference was one of unusual interest, and our readers will be glad to have the authorized reports in so convenient a form. The number will be sent to our subscribers, as usual, but extra copies will be 30 cents each.

INTELLIGENCE.

PLATFORM OF THE ELEVENTH ANNUAL MOHONK CONFERENCE.

The celebration this year of the discovery of America recalls the injuries done by the white man during four centuries to the race which was found in possession of the continent. It is hardly two decades since our Government began to try to make civilized citizens out of those it had allowed to remain barbarians. The progress made during this short time is gratifying, though much less than we might have made, considering how few in number the Indians are, or how plain are our duties to them.

We believe that the United States Government should apply to the Indian problem a well-defined purpose to hasten as rapidly as possible the complete absorption of the Indians into the body politic. A change of administration always awakens especial concern, and we desire that those charged with new responsibilities may, among their many other cares, see to it that further progress is made instead of retreat. President Cleveland's own expressed interest in this subject, both in this and his former administration, gives us hope that he will impress his advisers or executive officers with a corresponding earnest purpose.

We believe that Indian administration is not political in its nature and ought not to be controlled or disturbed by party politics. President Grant and his successors to the present time have all recognized this principle, and have tried with some earnestness to put it into practice, so that already many of the employees in the service are

XUM

under civil service rules. But under both the last administration and that which preceded it in too many cases, good agents and inspectors were removed to make room for untried men. This is most disastrous and should cease. It is a crime against good government to make the Indian service, serve not the Indian but the politician. We ask the President to carry on the reforms already inaugurated by extending the civil service rules to all those positions to which they are applicable, and to observe the spirit of the reform in all appointments and removals in the Indian service. We further earnestly ask all newspapers, and other guides of public sentiment, to support the President in his prosecution of this reform.

We believe that every Indian child should receive an American education. We believe that the Government should provide this education, and should require the children to attend the schools provided, except that parents should have the same liberty to send their children to other schools, at their own charges, as is allowed to white parents. Our Government has now provided school accommodations for three-fourths of the Indian children. Schools should be immediately supplied for the remaining fourth. While primary education should be given to all, the education of promising youth should not be cut short, but carried on so as to fit them to be teachers and industrial guides of their people.

We believe that the Indian trust fund held by the Government, but belonging to the Indians, should be expended for the Indians, and not divided among white men to satisfy fictitious and rapacious claims. We suggest that a statute of limitation be enacted, to cut off all depredation claims not presented within a reasonable time, and that stale state claims against Indian trust funds should be rejected. We urge that wherever possible, Indian trust funds be expended for the speedier education and civilization of those to whom they belong, and that in all future legislation in reference to the sale of surplus reservation lands, this purpose be held in view. We commend to the public the good work done for

the Indian by voluntary societies, philanthropic and religious. In this crisis it is of the utmost importance that the interests of the Indian should be carefully watched, that, so long as the selfish spoils system continues, the Indian may have disinterested friends to defend his cause at home and in Washington, as well as to supplement the work of Government agents and teachers.

And we urge upon all those churches and missionary bodies which have declined to receive aid from the Government in support of their schools, the imperative duty of making up the amount, so that Indian children shall not suffer a diminution of school privileges.

We believe that it is no longer a question what *ought* to be done for the Indian, but what *shall* be done. Public sentiment is formed; it should be carried into effect. We, therefore, recommend that a permanent committee be constituted by this conference, consisting of five persons, of whom the president of this conference shall be chairman, whose duty it shall be to prepare an appeal to the American people embodying these accepted principles, to secure the indorsement of them by representative men of all religious bodies and geographical sections, and to urge them upon the public through the press and upon Congress and the officials at Washington —by personal appeal. Among these principles, accordingly, we include:—

1. The extension of the rules or the principles of civil service reform, so as to remove utterly from party politics the appointment of Indian agents, allotment agents, and inspectors.

2. Appropriations sufficient to equip and maintain a system of schools adequate to provide for all Indian children of school age, not otherwise provided for, and compulsory attendance of children at *these* or other schools.

3. The protection of Indian trust funds against unjust claims, and their expenditure as far as possible for the education and civilization of the Indians.

4. The breaking up of the reservations as rapidly as the

interests of the Indians will allow, and the incorporation of the Indians in the mass of American citizens.

5. Due provision made by Congressional appropriations or from trust funds for the maintenance of legal protection, for schools, roads, and other public burdens, in counties where Indians have received allotments of lands, which by protected Indian title are exempt from all taxation, in order that no unjust burden may be put upon other resident citizens of these counties.

OCTOBER EXCHANGES.

ALTRUISTIC REVIEW.

John Crerar, is the title of an interesting character sketch of one of Chicago's late citizens, written by the editor. That John Crerar was an altruist in the highest sense, as well as a beloved citizen, is clearly demonstrated in this paper.

The "Corner" editor has a most delightful article on Hull House. The pictures which he presents to the mind's eye are strong ones and full of suggestions to the reader. "Hull House is a home, a school, a workshop, hearthstone for friends, a centre of impulses, the beginning place for sproutings of the good and beautiful, and for the training of the true and useful in human hearts."

ATLANTIC MONTHLY.

Besides the entertaining sketch entitled the Undertime of the Year, by Edith M. Thomas, there is another article which will be of particular interest to our readers. The Gothenburg System in America, by E. R. L. Gould. He holds that the United States, in many respects, affords more favorable opportunities for practical application of this system than in the countries of Norway and Sweden, where it has been successful in a marked degree. "Greater purity in municipal politics, while not an absolute prerequisite, will assuredly follow the introduction of the Gothenburg system."

XUM

CHAUTAUQUAN.

Hjalmar Hjorth Boyeson writes a pleasing sketch of Village Life in Norway. American Charity Movements, showing the progress of practical work along this line, as compared with earlier times, is the subject chosen by John A. Finley, President of Knox College. He affirms that the outlook for the future indicates increased interest and active methods. There are articles on Washington Irving, From Bremen to Christiana, and others.

OVERLAND MONTHLY.

Camping in Mendocino, by Charles S. Greene, is the leading article for the month, and is a bright out of door sketch. Alvin H. Sydenham describes The Longest Jetty in the World, in a graphic manner.

A study in penology, entitled The Reformatory Movement in California, is a discussion of the prison problem, by A. Drahms, chaplain State Prison, San Quentin.

REVIEW OF REVIEWS.

Mr. Walter Besant: A character sketch by John Underhill, is a delightful bit of reading, giving under five heads a description of the author at different periods of his life. Early Years and Education, Journalist, Critic, and Historian, Novelist and Poet, Man of Action, and Characteristics, forming the divisions of the sketch.

Extracts from the paper submitted to the Parliament of Religions by W. T. Stead, appear in this number. The Irrigation Idea and its Coming Congress, by William E. Smythe.

SCRIBNER'S.

W. D. Howells tells us what he thinks of the Man of Letters as a Man of Business. He maintains that a man's art should be his privilege and not a means of livelihood, and deplores the necessity of placing a money value upon that art, whether it be literature, painting or sculpture.

Many will be interested in the Historic Houses of Wash-

ington, by Tennis S. Hamlin, who writes of the associations as well as the history of the Washington houses.

Will H. Low tells us something of The Art of the White City, and illustrations of the same are given.

WOMEN'S FRIENDLY ASSOCIATION, ST. PAUL.

Similar to the Noon-Day Rest work of Boston is this Club for women in St. Paul. It works under the name of the Young Women's Friendly Association, and has for its objects:—

1. To maintain pleasant rooms for the use of young women.
2. To collect a library for their use.
3. To organize classes for their mental improvement.
4. To provide lectures and entertainments for their benefit.
5. To do everything possible for their advancement, physically, mentally, and spiritually.

The idea originated with Mr. Litchtenberger, the present manager, who says the work was suggested to him "by seeing the girls going by to their work, day after day, carrying their lunches, and he fell to wondering where and how they ate them." Upon inquiry he found that many of the places were unpleasant and unwholesome. The result was that he and his wife opened a small room where they served tea and coffee, and invited the girls to come there. But that was not the end. Little by little they enlarged their quarters to keep pace with the growing need until now they have a lunch, reading, and rest room, occupying the second floor of a building on the corner of Jackson and Seventh streets.

Owing to increased membership it has become necessary to rent the floor above the one now occupied. This room, which is now in preparation, covers a space of "sixty-six by ninety feet which will be divided into a gymnasium, dormi-

tory, class-room, bath, toilet, cloak, and living rooms." These rooms will be furnished with modern equipments as the means of the Association allow.

Mr. and Mrs. Lichtenberger live in the building, and thus the work is under their constant care and supervision. A room will be fitted up as a dormitory "for young women who are strangers in the city, or who in cases of emergency need a night's lodging." As soon as the funds of the institution will permit, it is proposed to establish bath rooms where Russian, Turkish, and electric baths may be taken with the assistance of a trained female attendant.

The Association was organized in 1888 and Mr. and Mrs. Lichtenberger have been the leading spirits in carrying on the work. The motto of the club, "Bear ye one another's burdens, and so fulfil the law of Christ."

The increased attendance is shown by comparing the number attending the first year with that for the five and a half months of the current year. For the year 1888 the number attending was 26,061, while for the five and a half months of the present year, ending June 1, the attendance was 64,850. A grand total of 325,837 women have been benefited by this movement since it originated. The lunches are scientifically prepared, and the price within reach of even the ill-paid cash girls. Various classes have been established with a nominal price of admission.

This organization partakes of the character of a woman's club, the underlaying principle of which is mutual help and co-operation to the end that the existence of the members may be fuller of joy, sweetness, love and independence than isolated individuals or groups in apartment houses or flats could possibly obtain. Women of means, who are not in the limited sense of the word working women, are members, and do all in their power to assist the girls in their striving for independence. The name of the Association is the best explanation of its character. It is a congregation of young women who, in the spirit of friendship, come together to render existence happy and more useful.

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